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ABSTRACT

This document contains three papers from a symposium on leadership and executive development. "Leading and Managing in a Service Organization: An Examination of Line vs. Staff Effectiveness" (Allan H. Church, Janine Waclawski) presents an analysis of differences in managerial strengths and weaknesses between 45 line managers and 52 human resources professionals. Based on data collected during a 360 degree development feedback effort on 46 behaviors pertaining to different aspects of management, findings reveal differences with respect to ratings levels, behavioral tendencies by line versus staff position, and managerial self awareness vis-a-vis ratings congruence. "Leadership throughout Organizations" (Darlene Russ-Eft) reports a study that validates measurement of the CLIMB model of leadership: Create a compelling future, Let the customer drive the organization, Involve every mind, Manage work horizontally, and Build personal credibility, an instrument designed to measure CLIMB leadership competencies among those not currently in traditional leadership positions. "The Development and Evaluation of a Model of Responsible Leadership for Performance: Beginning the Journey" (Susan A. Lynham, Richard A. Swanson) focuses on a study to develop a leadership model for responsible leadership in a framework that satisfies the concerns for performance and integrity and determine its content and face validity. (YLB)

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Chair: Martin Mulder, University of Twente

Leading and Managing in a Service Organization: An Examination of Line vs. Staff Effectiveness

Allan H. Church, W. Warner Burke Associates Inc.
Janine Waclawski, W. Warner Burke Associates Inc.

Leadership Throughout Organizations

Darlene Russ-Eft, Zenger Miller, AHRD Global 100 member

The Development and Evaluation of a Model of Responsible Leadership for Performance: Beginning the Journey

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Leading and Managing in a Service Organization: An Examination of Line vs. Staff Effectiveness

Allan H. Church
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Presents an analysis of differences in managerial strengths and weaknesses between 45 line managers and 52 human resource professionals in a highly service-oriented retail organization. Based on data collected during a 360 degree development feedback effort on 46 behaviors pertaining to different aspects of management, findings revealed differences with respect to ratings levels, behavioral tendencies by line vs. staff position, and managerial self-awareness vis-à-vis ratings congruence. Implications of these data are discussed.

Given the impact of individual managerial actions on service provider quality (e.g., Church, Javitch & Burke, 1995; Schneider, 1980) and subsequent organizational performance (e.g., Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 1994; Spencer, 1991; Waclawski, 1996), as well as the ever increasing level of service-driven organizations in the marketplace today (Maister, 1993; Schneider & Bowen, 1993), it is imperative that we begin to understand the relative strengths and weaknesses of different managerial positions that enhance and reinforce these principles in the workplace.

While the behaviors of line managers have always been an easy target of study because their behavior directly impacts the work carried out in the field (e.g., Church, 1995a, Daniel, 1985), the contribution of staff positions to effective service performance has received considerably less examination in the literature (Bowen & Lawler, 1992; Schneider & Bowen, 1993). This is somewhat surprising, since it is primarily the staff functions, such as human resources and information systems functions, for example, that serve as the gateway to organizational information on culture, standards and policies. Given their role in the organization, one would expect that HR professionals would have to be more facilitative and process oriented in their approach to working with others than would managers with bottom-line authority and responsibility. While this differentiation in role is probably present in most organizations to some extent, it is likely to be more pronounced in highly competitive service-based organizations where profit margins are low and external competitiveness is high. Given these conditions, the tensions inherent in the system are likely to polarize people into various functional roles that highlight their respective strengths and weaknesses.

The purpose of this paper is to provide evidence of this polarization, and to delineate the differences between line and staff functions in a large, rapidly growing U.S. based highly service-oriented retail organization. More specifically, the relative strengths and weaknesses of a line versus a staff orientation will be compared and contrasted, with particular attention paid to the responsive and highly competitive nature of the service industry (Maister, 1993; Schneider, 1980) and the specific role of the human resources function in this arena (e.g., Hersey & Blanchard, 1988; Schneider & Bowen, 1993; Schuler & Jackson, 1987). In addition, some general comparisons among various rating sources vis-à-vis levels of agreement or concurrence will also be assessed and compared with prior research and in relation to various theories of self-awareness (e.g., Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Church, 1997; Church & Waclawski, 1996; Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; London & Wohlers, 1991; Van Velsor, Taylor & Leslie, 1993; Yammarino & Atwater, 1993). Recent research efforts with managers from a variety of organizations and industries (e.g., Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Church, 1997; 1994; Van Velsor, Taylor, & Leslie,

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1993) have supported the contention that greater levels of managerial self-awareness--as measured by congruence in self-other ratings--all directly linked to higher levels of performance.

Thus, this paper will attempt to address issues inherent in functional differences, rating levels, and managerial self-awareness with respect to line versus staff positions. Finally, implications of these results for the management and assessment of service organizations will be discussed.

Method

The data used in the present study were collected over a 9 month period from managers, their direct reports, peers and supervisors as part of a larger 360 degree HRD feedback initiative devoted to enhancing and developing the individual effectiveness of managers in this organization. In total, responses were received from 97 focal managers (45 line managers and 52 human resource professionals), along with 515 of their direct reports, 609 of their peers, and 126 of their supervisors. Since the majority of the staff personnel did not have direct reports, they relied more heavily on peers for their feedback assessment. Listed below in Table 1 is the detailed response information for each functional group.

Table 1. Response Information by Functional Group

	Line Managers		Staff Personnel		Total	
	N	*M*	*N*	*M*	*N*	*M*
Direct Reports	466	10.13	49	6.13	515	9.54
Peers	243	5.28	366	7.04	609	6.21
Supervisors	55	1.22	71	1.37	126	1.30

All raters, including the participants themselves, were informed of the developmental intent of the rating process and how the feedback would be used. They were instructed to be as candid in their assessments as possible. Raters were also told that no one in the organization other than the focal manager himself or herself would receive a copy of the results of their assessments. Further, direct reports and peers were also notified that their ratings would not be reported to the participant unless 3 or more responses were received from the same perspective, thus insuring the confidentiality of their individual responses. These tactics were employed with the intent of enhancing rater motivation and reducing instrumentation effects inherent in the rating process (Harris, 1994; McIntyre, Smith, & Hassett, 1984; Ostroff, 1993).

The feedback process was initiated with the senior most officers of the organization. Following the receipt of their own individualized assessment, the rollout process included all senior VPs and managers, regional managers, and human resources personnel. Since the questionnaires used to assess regional managers and human resource staff were the same, it was possible to compare the collective results of individuals with these two different functional orientations.

Data were collected using a 46-item custom-designed behaviorally based instrument constructed in collaboration with the OD department of the client organization. This instrument consisted of factors identified by the organization as critical for managerial success. Areas assessed by the instrument included demonstrating various aspects of customer focus, leadership, building relationships, critical thinking, follow through, communication, integrity and people management. The inter-item reliability of the instrument was quite strong among the present sample with .92 for self-ratings, .97 for averaged direct reports ratings, .93 for averaged peer ratings, and .95 for supervisor ratings.

Analyses were conducted on these data using both total scale and individual item scores. Averaged other ratings by source (e.g., direct report, peer, supervisor) were used for those individuals with more than 1 direct report, peer or supervisor responding. Managerial self-awareness vis-à-vis self-other congruence was computed using two different methods: (a) the collective level of agreement between self and others' ratings using a standard index of profile

similarity *d*, i.e., the square root of the sum of squared differences between self and other (averages were used for direct reports, peers and clients rating the same individual) for each comparison item divided by the total number of items (e.g., Church, 1997; Nunnally, 1978; Tisak & Smith, 1994); and the categorical agreement method (e.g., Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Van Velsor, Taylor & Leslie, 1993) whereby participants are classified as being either under-raters, accurate-raters, or over-raters based on a comparison of total scores. Standard Pearson correlations were also performed for comparison purposes with prior research.

Results & Discussion

Findings are described according to three major categories: Summary Score Analyses, Functional Differences, and Managerial Self-Awareness.

Summary Score Analyses. First, an analysis of the summary scores by rater-type revealed that, as anticipated and consistent with prior research (e.g., Arnold & Davey, 1992; Church, 1994; Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; Mabe & West, 1982; Nowack, 1992; Van Velsor et al., 1993), self-ratings were significantly higher overall than those provided by any other group. Thus, individuals tended to rate themselves higher on average across all 46 behaviors compared with ratings received from their direct reports ($t = 3.07$, $p < .01$), their peers ($t = 3.96$, $p < .001$) and their supervisors ($t = 3.38$, $p < .01$). Moreover, while self and direct report ratings were low but significantly correlated nonetheless, there were no significant relationships between self and peer or self and supervisor assessments. Although consistent with prior research, this is still a somewhat troubling finding. Table 2 provides the detailed descriptive statistics for these summary variables.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Summary Ratings

	M	*SD*	*Self*	*Direct Reports*	*Peers*	*Supervisors*
Self	3.63	.37	.92			
Direct Reports	3.52	.34	.29*	.97		
Peers	3.46	.28	.13	.30*	.93	
Supervisors	3.45	.37	.01	.14	.22*	.95

Note: $p < .05$, reliabilities are printed on the diagonal

Functional Differences. Next, the data were examined more carefully for differences in ratings effects and specific content areas by functional group (i.e., line versus staff). Based on the results of several ANOVA models, a number of strong and interesting findings emerged, some of which served to moderate the general ratings discrepancies noted above. First, it was apparent that line managers rated themselves significantly higher than did staff managers ($M = 3.72$ vs. $M = 3.56$) $F = 4.51$, $p < .05$. When compared with others' ratings within their own functional group, line managers continued to yield significant over-inflated self-ratings as compared with ratings from their direct reports, peers and supervisors, while there were no significant differences between self-assessments from staff personnel and their direct reports, peers or supervisors. Thus, function served as a key moderator for the inflation observed in the self-ratings. While this does not necessarily reflect a greater level of self-awareness on the part of staff personnel, it would suggest that they are at the very least more modest in their self-assessments.

Another interesting difference observed in ratings by functional group concerned the average value given by peers. While there were no significant differences in direct report ratings (due in large part to the fewer numbers of direct reports responding for the staff personnel), line managers were found to be rated significantly lower by their peers than were staff personnel ($M = 3.39$ vs. $M = 3.52$) $F = 5.00$, $p < .05$. This tendency was also present among ratings received from supervisors ($M = 3.38$ vs. $M = 3.51$), although the effect was significant only at the $p < .10$ level.

Further analyses were then conducted at the item level in order to identify specific differences by functional group. Surprisingly, the majority of the differences identified were consistent across rater type except for self-assessments. In other words, direct reports, peers and supervisors were extremely consistent in their perceptions of the relative strengths and weaknesses of each group of individuals. A summary of significant findings from these analyses is provided below in Table 3.

Table 3. Key Strengths from Item Level Comparison by Functional Group

	Others' Ratings
Line Managers	+ understands how customers think
	+ reacts to customer needs
	+ handles upset customers
	+ is relentless in pursuing objectives
	+ willingly takes on significant challenges
	+ is flexible and adapts to change
	+ follows up with people to make sure the job gets done
Staff Personnel	+ understands impact of decisions on others
	+ creates a positive work environment
	+ creates partnership and teamwork
	+ looks for common ground to solve problems
	+ values diversity
	+ treats people fairly and consistently
	+ has the highest standards
	+ readily admits mistakes
	+ treats people with respect when times get tough
	+ listens with an open mind
	+ asks people for their input and ideas
	+ is approachable

Interestingly enough, the pattern of differences for self-ratings was entirely different. More specifically, while line managers saw themselves as being better at developing their people (e.g., training and developing their people, challenging people to learn and grow, giving people responsibility) direct reports, peers and supervisors did not agree.

Given the patterns described above, it is apparent that the polarization in function has occurred in the present organization. Using the framework of a traditional task-process dichotomy (e.g., Bales, 1950; Fiedler, 1964), the strengths of the line managers represent the task mentality for the organization--i.e., bottom-line, customer-driven, focused on getting the job done no matter what the cost. The managerial strengths of the staff personnel, on the other hand, represent the process side of the organization--i.e., people oriented, cooperative, collaborative, open to all types of people and ideas. This separation of managerial strength by function is not a particularly novel observation, and has been reflected in a variety of prior studies (e.g., Siegal, et al., 1996).

Although both aspects are clearly needed for effective functioning in organizations, such dichotomization is probably not best realized as a division of function (e.g., line versus staff) but rather as a distinction between different individuals within the same functions, or even as different aspects of managerial behavior within the same individual. In other words, while such polarization may be a consequence of extreme environmental pressures coupled with high speed growth, it is a potentially dangerous situation.

Clearly, this is justification enough for pursuing individual development efforts through the use of multi-rater feedback efforts. As many practitioners and researchers have argued, individualized multi-rater feedback is one of the most popular and effective methods for changing individual behavior (e.g., Bracken, 1994; Church, et al. 1995; Hazucha, Hezlett, & Schneider, 1993; London & Beatty, 1993; O'Reilly, 1994). When compared with self-ratings on the same

items, ratings from co-workers and clients serve as a powerful tool for individual behavior change by enhancing one's level of self-awareness. By building on his or her strengths and weaknesses, a manager can begin to improve his or her behavior in a variety of actionable areas.

Managerial Self-Awareness. Finally, the data were examined for differences with respect to managerial self-awareness. Based on an analysis of the individual item-level differences, the only significant effect for the profile similarity measure (*d*) was for self-supervisor ratings. More specifically, line managers exhibited significantly less congruence between self-scores and those from their supervisors than did staff personnel ($M = 1.12$ vs. $M = .99$, $F = 8.17$, $p < .01$). With respect to self-direct reports and self-peers comparisons there were no significant effects by functional group. Levels of MSA among the present sample (e.g., $M = .88$, and .90) were similar to findings for average performing managers reported in prior research (e.g., Church, 1994).

When these same data were examined using the categorical approach (e.g., Atwater & Yammarino, 1992) to assessing self-awareness vis-à-vis ratings congruence, the same pattern emerged. Based on a comparison of self and peer ratings (due to sample limitations across the two groups) across the entire 46 item instrument, the subsequent analysis yielded a significant Chi-square value of 7.90, $p < .05$. Therefore, it is clear that staff personnel tended to be much more modest in their ratings overall than were line managers. Consistent with the item-level analysis, there were no differences in self-awareness among peers with respect to functional group. Table 4 presents the details of this analysis.

Table 4. Percentage of Functional Group by Agreement Category

Row Pct Col. Pct	Line Managers	Staff Personnel	Total
Under-raters	25.8%	74.2%	32.0%
	17.8%	44.2%	
Accurate raters	54.1%	45.9%	38.1%
	44.4%	32.7%	
Over-raters	58.6%	41.4%	29.9%
	37.8%	23.1%	
Total	46.4%	53.6%	100.0%

A similar categorical analysis based on supervisor ratings yielded consistent results with the item level analysis, that is, a significantly greater proportion of line personnel were accurate raters (i.e., more self-aware) than were line managers with a Chi-square of 13.72, $p < .001$.

Summary

In general the results reported in this paper point to a number of clear differences between line and staff positions with respect to levels of self-assessment as well as strengths and weaknesses as managers. More specifically, while data collected from line managers reflected the same general tendencies toward self-ratings bias reported in many other research studies, staff personnel provided much more modest and accurate self-assessments, thus demonstrating greater managerial self-awareness. Further, while line managers were seen as being strong at bottom-line, task and customer oriented behaviors, they were particularly weak in the areas of communication, demonstrating integrity and generally managing their people. In comparison, staff personnel were seen as being far better at working with and relating to others on an interpersonal level, but they were less effective at providing follow-through and less demonstrative toward the customer.

Limitations & Suggestions for Future Research

There are several limitations to this research that limit the generalizability of the results presented. First, only one organization was studied. While this specific organization does represent one of the most successful service-based retail firms in the United States at present and therefore may reflect those organizations that experience significant growth, it does not represent the large percentage of firms that either stagnate or even fail. Future research should focus on testing the differences exhibited here across a variety of successful and not so successful service-based organizations. It may be the case, for example, that those companies experiencing only moderate amounts of growth may have better integration between the task and process functions. Research by Church and McMahan (1996) on the practice of OD in rapidly growing firms does suggest that the OD/HRD function is less viable (and given less focus) in these organizations than in those with more established functional structures (e.g., McMahan & Woodman, 1992).

Another limitation of this research is the specific nature and size of the samples studied. Although the entire population of regional managers and HR professionals were used for this research, differences in other groups (e.g., senior managers, sales staff, local area managers, etc.) that were not studied might serve to either enhance or refute patterns observed. Future research should be directed at assessing and ultimately comparing the same set of behaviors a variety of different functions. While it is likely that senior managers in such an organization would tend to exhibit the same types of strengths and weakness, given the impact that such key organizational members can have on the culture and resulting managerial behavior (e.g., Church, 1995a; Church & Waclawski, 1996), this can be only be confirmed through additional study.

Finally, the results described above would be more meaningful if they could be linked directly to hard performance measures. Prior research, for example, has linked specific managerial behaviors to net profit and customer service measures in the financial (Waclawski, 1996) and in the airline service industries (e.g., Church, 1995b).

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Leadership Throughout Organizations

Darlene Russ-Eft
Zenger Miller

This study validates measurement of the CLIMB leadership model. A 36-item instrument was completed by 129 non-supervisory personnel from 10 different organizations. Analyses of the 36-item and a shortened version of 30 items revealed high internal consistency emerged, with an overall alpha of .89 for the 36-item version and .86 for the 30-item version.. A principal components factor analysis of both versions showed that five factors accounted for 50.4% and 43.8% of the variance, respectively. Furthermore, factor analyses of items (on the 30-item instrument) from the five pre-determined factors revealed that each factor emerged as unitary.

Leadership has always been essential to human society. No human organization can survive long without it. In every culture and every historical period, leadership has played a vital role in the coherence and survival of the group. This universal need for leadership derives from the uncertainties and dangers inherent in the human condition. Day-by-day, moment-by-moment, all people experience the need to know what to think, feel, and do. In familiar situations, decisions are easy. But when conditions become confusing, uncertain, or dangerous, the choices are less clear. People instinctively look to leaders for help. Leaders provide models for how to act, think, and react. They can help group members uncover new possibilities within a situation and untapped resources within themselves.

In corporations across North America, real leadership has traditionally been confined to the upper echelons of the organization. The roots of this practice lie in the theories of Frederick S. Taylor (1911), an American engineer and efficiency expert. Taylor sought to optimize industrial efficiency by performing time-and-motion analyses on each industrial task. Each task was broken down into discrete actions and then reconfigured, so that workers could perform those tasks in the fastest and most efficient way possible. By mechanizing human labor -- having each worker on the assembly line perform only a few specialized actions -- Taylor sought to compensate for the overall lack of skills in the labor force. Along with this mechanization of labor came a sort of mechanization of management: an extensive management structure to organize and supervise employees. The idea was to minimize individual responsibility in order to maintain an efficient and uniform manufacturing process.

In an economic environment increasingly shaped by the globalization of competition, deregulation, the maturation of markets, and breathtaking rate of technological development, this kind of structure has proven unwieldy. Bending to the need to introduce new, high quality products and services quickly, many corporations have moved toward flatter organizational structures that emphasize participative management and teamwork on the part of multi-skilled employees. Individual contributors in team-based environments are taking on more and more responsibility for improving processes and products. As executives and managers find themselves sharing more of the decision-making authority with individual contributors, an emerging consensus sees a need for leadership at all levels of the organization.

Popular books on management and business claim that effective leadership throughout an organization is now essential. Kotter (1988) stresses "the need for effective leadership at the lower levels of the hierarchy." Champy (1995) points out that the trend toward the reengineering and flattening of organizations requires all employees of an organization to participate in leadership.

While there is growing consensus on the need for everyone to exercise leadership, there is still little agreement on what, precisely, leadership is. Block (1993) proposes replacing the "command and control" hierarchies with collaborative leadership arrangements in which both decision-making power and accountability are shared between managers and individual contributors. His concept of leadership rejects common notions of defining purpose for others, controlling others, or taking care of others. Champy seeks

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to recast the traditional manager as a "liberation leader," a leader who can "let go," who enables employees to get work done by providing support, removing obstacles, and challenging their imaginations. Carnevale (1990) describes leadership as a "delicately sculpted image" built upon attributes such as reliability, goal orientation, vision, and the ability to cultivate the respect of peers. To be effective, a leader must couple these skills with what Carnevale calls "organizational effectiveness," an understanding of the goals, values, and cultures of organizations and how to operate within them.

If the need for leadership is great, the need to identify and articulate the skills and attributes that make up effective leadership is also great. A review of the research literature on leadership and leader competencies was undertaken in hopes of discovering a set of characteristics common to the competing models and definitions.

Russ-Eft, Berrey, Hurson, and Brennan (1996) analyzed over one hundred leadership studies conducted during the 1980s and early 1990s in an attempt to identify the common attributes of good leadership. The only characteristic found to be universal in these reports was "vision." Effective leaders help to establish a vision, set standards for performance, and create a focus and a direction for organizational efforts.

Three other characteristics appeared repeatedly:

- Ability to communicate a vision effectively (often through the use of symbols and symbolic actions)
- Commitment to and passion for the organization, and the ability to communicate that to others
- Ability to inspire trust and build relationships

Beyond these four characteristics, the consensus breaks down. Each study provides a long list of attributes associated with effective risk-taking (e.g., flexibility, self-confidence, interpersonal skills, task competence, intelligence, decisiveness, understanding followers, courage, and so on) but none of these attributes are identified by more than two of the studies.

In addition to leadership surveys, general competency studies -- studies aimed at determining the basic skills and competencies employers look for in employees -- were also reviewed. From 1984 through 1991, five major studies of workforce skills were commissioned: the U.S. Department of Labor (SCANS, 1991), the American Society of Training and Development (ASTD) (Carnevale, Gainer, & Meltzer, 1990), the Michigan Employability Skills Task Force (Employability Skills Task Force, 1988, 1989; Mehrens, 1989), the New York State Education Department (1990), and the National Academy of Sciences (NAS) (1984). Three of these studies, SCANS, ASTD, and Michigan, identified leadership skills as an important category of interpersonal or teamwork skills. Each of the three studies, however, defined leadership skills differently. SCANS emphasized persuasion, while the Michigan study emphasized the capacity to "know when to be a leader and when to be a follower." The ASTD study focused on "sharing leadership," which was closely associated with interpersonal skills, teamwork, and negotiation.

While each of the previous studies has shed some badly needed light on issues surrounding leadership, as a group they display a surprising lack of consensus on which characteristics of leadership are fundamentally important. Each study defines leadership differently. Each model develops its own categories of leadership characteristics or competencies; only rarely do these overlap. Significantly, none of the studies has queried or focused on individual contributors -- those outside of traditional management roles. Most of these studies surveyed only senior management, while others concentrated on or included middle and line managers.

Consequently, none of these studies gives us a true picture of the leadership characteristics needed currently at all levels of an organization. What, for instance, are the leadership qualities an individual contributor or team member will need when co-workers look to him or her for guidance on a certain issue? Clearly, as organizations grow increasingly flatter and more streamlined, a different kind of leadership model is needed. Russ-Eft et al. (1996) reported on the results of a critical incident study that resulted in the identification of leadership competencies at all levels in an organization. From these competencies,

we developed the CLIMB model of leadership:

Create a compelling future
Let the customer drive the organization
Involve every mind
Manage work horizontally
Build personal credibility

Hurson (1996) reported on the success of the use of the CLIMB model with senior executives. Russ-Eft (in preparation) presented results of analyses of the reliability and validity of measures of the CLIMB concepts with senior executives.

Research Questions

The purpose of the present study is to validate an instrument designed to measure the CLIMB leadership competencies among those who are not currently in traditional leadership positions. Such validation will provide further evidence of such leadership as well as data on an instrument to measure such leadership.

Method

Instrument. The instrument was developed using the results of the critical incident study (Russ-Eft, et al, 1996). It was designed to measure the leadership competencies of non-supervisory, professional/technical employees using the CLIMB model. It included 36 items, and each item was scored using a 5-point Likert-type scale. The scale ranged from 1 to 5, with 1 representing "Strongly Disagree" and 5 representing "Strongly Agree."

Subjects. The subjects came from 10 different organizations, representing manufacturing, food processing, financial services, business services, educational services, and health services. All 129 subjects came from non-supervisory, professional/technical positions.

Procedures. A contact within each organization was telephoned and asked to distribute questionnaires. Each subject received a questionnaire and a self-addressed stamped envelope for returning the questionnaire.

Analyses. Cronbach's Alpha was calculated to determine internal consistency. An alpha "if item deleted" was calculated to determine the effect on the alpha if any items were deleted from the scale. This was followed by a principal-components factor analysis with varimax rotation. Using the results of the alpha "if item deleted" and the factor analysis, the instrument was reduced to 30 items, and the analyses rerun.

Results and Conclusions

The overall alpha and item alphas revealed a high degree of internal consistency. The overall alpha was .8954. The item alphas using "if item deleted" yielded alphas ranging from .8896 to .8961.

A principal components factor analysis using all 36 items, followed by a varimax rotation was undertaken. Using Kaiser's criterion, according to which only factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 are retained, the analysis retained 10 factors which accounted for 55.6 percent of the variance. The scree-plot of the eigenvalues and factors, shown in Figure 1, indicated that five factors should be retained. These five factors accounted for 50.4 percent of the variance.

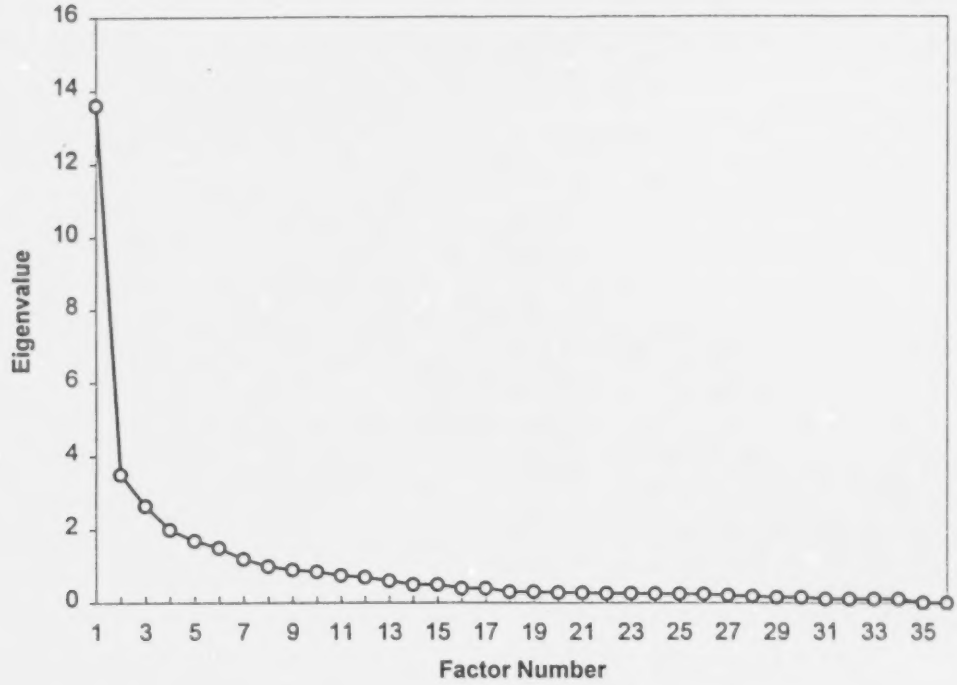

Figure 1. Scree plot of the eigenvalues for the factors using the 36-item instrument measuring CLIMB.

The items loadings from the varimax rotation suggested that Factor 1 represented "Create a compelling future", Factor 2 represented "Build personal credibility," Factor 3 represented "Manage work horizontally," Factor 4 represented "Let the customer drive the organization" and Factor 5 represented "Involve every mind." Table 1 presents a brief summary of the factor analyses on the agreement ratings, using varimax rotation. These results indicate that the factor structure of the instrument and the CLIMB model are congruent.

An examination of the loadings of specific items on each factor revealed that several items cross-loaded or showed high loadings on more than one factor. As a result, further review of the items was undertaken to determine whether the instrument could be refined.

Table 1

Factor Analysis Results of 36-Item Instrument Including Factor Loadings (By Factor Using Example Items)

Factors	Non-Supervisory
Factor: Create a Compelling Future	
I help others develop positive approaches to emerging needs in the organization.	.70
Factor: Let the Customer Drive the Organization	
I help ensure that timely, accurate customer data is gathered and distributed.	.73
Factor: Involve Every Mind	
I encourage people to speak up when they disagree.	.52
Factor: Manage Work Horizontally	
I challenge unnecessary barriers (policies, procedures) to working across functions.	.78
Factor: Build Personal Credibility	
I actively seek feedback regarding my strengths and weaknesses.	.79

Based on the combined results of the Cronbach alphas and the factor analyses, six items were deleted and the analyses rerun. With only 30 items, the overall alpha was .8643, and the item alphas "if item deleted" ranged from .8555 to .8662. Table 2 presents a brief summary of the factor analyses on the agreement ratings, using varimax rotation. The five factors accounted for 43.8 percent of the variance. A final set of factor analyses examined separate items from each of the pre-determined factors; these analyses showed that each factor emerged as unitary.

Table 2

Factor Analysis Results of 30-Item Instrument Including Factor Loadings (By Factor Using Example Items)

Factors	Non-Supervisory
Factor: Create a Compelling Future	
I help others develop positive approaches to emerging needs in the organization.	.66
Factor: Let the Customer Drive the Organization	
I help ensure that timely, accurate customer data is gathered and distributed.	.70
Factor: Involve Every Mind	
I encourage people to speak up when they disagree.	.77
Factor: Manage Work Horizontally	
I challenge unnecessary barriers (policies, procedures) to working across functions.	.72
Factor: Build Personal Credibility	
I actively seek feedback regarding my strengths and weaknesses.	.75

These results supported the congruence of the shortened-version of the instrument and the CLIMB model. In addition, they provided some evidence supporting the CLIMB model of leadership for non-supervisory personnel. Further data collection currently underway will yield more stability to these findings.

How This Research Contributes to New Knowledge in HRD

The combination of the Russ-Eft et al (1996) critical incident study and the Russ-Eft (in-press) study of senior executives with the results of the present study provides evidence for the construct validity of the CLIMB model of leadership. Of greatest interest is that such validation extends to those who are not currently in formal leadership positions.

Organizations today are increasingly disbanding hierarchies and organizing around processes in order to become more customer focused and competitive. In such environments, leadership practiced at all levels will provide a great competitive asset. These results provide some evidence of the extension of leadership to all levels in organizations.

If leadership exists at all levels, then we can assume that leadership development is needed at all levels within organizations. Indeed, the need for such leadership development may be even greater than that needed for executives. Once an individual reaches the executive level, he or she has most likely participated in some formal or informal leadership development. Individuals at other levels within organizations have probably never been exposed to such leadership development. Thus, the role of HRD will be to expand leadership development to everyone and to make that development appropriate for all levels within organizations.

The discussion of leadership at all levels has focused on the positive aspects. There may be some negative aspects, however, particularly when the concept applied inappropriately. As one example, the move within healthcare toward the health-maintenance organizations (HMOs) has led to a focus on profitability. In some instances, the tasks of healthcare professionals have been segmented and designed

for technicians. Such technicians have not necessarily received the same level of training and development as the healthcare professional. Furthermore, unlike the professional, the technician may not be accountable for his or her actions to some third-party professional association (i.e., the American Medical Association). The role of the HRD professional, in this case, may be to alert the organization to potential pitfalls arising from cost-cutting actions that may compromise expected quality and standards and lead to future problems for the organization.

The expansion of the leadership concept to all levels within organizations provides further opportunities for researchers. To what extent are organizations actually embracing such concepts? To what extent are organizations using the concepts inappropriately? If organizations are implementing this concept, what changes are occurring, if any, in the reporting relationships and the bureaucratic structures? If such changes are taking place, how are customers reacting? To what extent do such changes improve the productivity and profitability of the organization? From the standpoint of HRD, how are organizations developing these leaders at different levels; and how effective are these development efforts?

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The Development and Evaluation of a Model of Responsible Leadership for Performance: Beginning the Journey

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The model for "Responsible Leadership for Performance" represents a unique perspective on sustainable leadership. The core contribution of this effort is the integration of the "personal characteristics" view of leaders at the top and the "performance/systems view" of the complexity of the organization, along with the recognition that leadership requires willing followership.

Theoretical Framework, Problem Statement, and Research Questions

With executive salaries and compensation raised to astronomical heights, their less fortunate workforces have developed extreme cynicism in response to upper management's betrayal of trust (Lee, 1997). Workers "...do not understand why these things are going on. Leadership has failed to make the case, which fuels anger and frustration" (Lee, 1997, p. 35).

The paradox of what seems to be happening in the realm of leadership is that greed and self-interest among top executives (Swanson, 1996) is contrasted against the calls for these same people at the top of organizations to view themselves as servant-leaders (Block, 1993). Much of the leadership development response is focused on the strength and characteristics of the individual leader rather than looking at leadership needing to take place at multiple levels in an integrated way. Covey's popular leadership model is an example of this self-centered view of leadership that never directly deals with performance and followership (1989). How to integrate the performance demands and the realities of humanity is a challenge to those interested in leadership. The field of HRD should have something to say in response to the uni-dimensional leader-at-the top, short-term economic view of leadership driven by Wall Street.

The problem is the need for a leadership model for responsible leadership in a framework that satisfies the concerns for performance *and* integrity. The model must integrate the practical overarching concerns for ethics and economics. The following research questions have been developed to guide the study:

1. Can a model for "Responsible Leadership for Performance" be developed from the literature?
2. Does the model of "Responsible Leadership for Performance" have content and face validity among responsible leaders and followers?

Methodology

The following research methodology was used to pursue the research questions. Question 1, focused on developing the model of "Responsible Leadership for Performance," and was addressed and documented through the literature, logic, and systems thinking. The model relies heavily on the leadership work of Bell (1993)-- effective, ethical, and enduring leadership-- and the performance improvement work of Swanson (1994) stressing performance levels and performance variables.

Question 2 focused on determining the content and face validity of the model of "Responsible Leadership for Performance" and was addressed through the expert critique of the model by responsible leaders and responsible followers.

Question #1 Results: Developing the Model of the Responsible Leadership for Performance

Question 1 focused on developing the model of "Responsible Leadership for Performance," addressed through the literature, logic, and systems thinking. As noted earlier, the model relies

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heavily on the leadership work of Bell (1993) -- effective, ethical, and enduring leadership, and the performance improvement work of Swanson (1994) -- performance levels and performance variables (see Figure 1).

Literature Overview. There are many changes afoot as the realities of an emerging era of globalization and the accompanying relentlessness of discontinuous change in a complex, turbulent business environment become the order of the business day. These changes call for leadership models that pursue performance in ways that are open, systemic, flexible, and holistic, and that enable organizations to continuously transform themselves.

From Rifken to Handy, Drucker to Barker, Toffler to McLagan and Nel, the unpredictability and even unimaginability, of the changes appear to point to the need for leadership that will be of a fundamentally different nature. The tension between the likely leadership needs of this emerging business era and the current state of leadership solutions are illustrated in the following points:

- Leadership remains a dilemma in organizations. A paradox within the realm of leadership is that of the prevalence of greed and self-interest among top executives (Swanson, 1996) and the need to contrast this against the calls for these same people to view themselves as servant-leaders (Block, 1993).
- There is increasing pressure to exhibit leadership within organizations, and yet there appears to be little evidence of leadership development contributing to organization performance. If leadership is within the realm of HRD, then it needs to add value to the performance of organizations, and the business case for leadership development needs to be made from a performance perspective.
- The increasing complexity and diversity of the business environment poses problems that leadership needs to be equipped to address in a holistic way, instead of offering partial solutions which seem to represent present day leadership.
- Many of the solutions and models of leadership available to us today have grown up in an era of a more stable, predictable environment of the Industrial Age. As such, they are ill-equipped to deal with the problems and challenges of the emerging era and the business environment of the information and participation age (McLagan & Nel, 1996). New, more holistic models of leadership are required to address these unique challenges.
- There are a number of areas of increasing difficulty for organizational leadership (Van der Merwe, 1996): "the increasing rate of change ... necessitating that organizations build an infrastructure for learning and the capacity to self-correct; ... a rising level of complexity, demanding a raising of the quality level of thinking systematically; and an ever-widening range of diversity, requiring an increasing ability to deal with diversity of thinking".

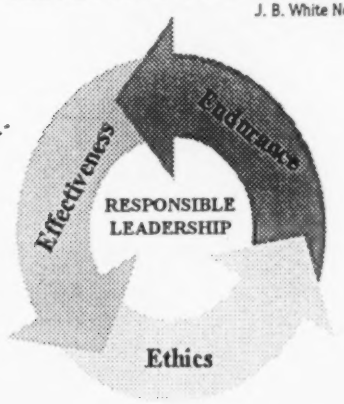
Gone are the days of prescriptive recipes of leadership. Organizations will need leadership that is able to think and act fundamentally differently, able to integrate critical thinking with critical practice. Organizations will need to shift away from the pursuit of control, discrete boundaries and recognizable problems towards greater complexity, global competition, continuous quantum change and collaborative team orientations. These shifts herald an increasing gap between current leadership practices and future leadership needs. The competencies needed of and for leadership will be different. They will need to integrate the apparent paradox of performance demands and the realities of humanity--- in other words, of people *and* performance (Melrose, 1996). How these emerging challenges can be met remains a question for the future. That they will take leadership of a fundamentally different nature and capability is certain. Some of the truisms of this leadership will very likely need to include the following:

- The reciprocity between leadership and followership are acknowledged.
- Leadership is constantly earned and re-earned.
- Leadership is about successfully straddling dilemmas - less about choices.
- Leadership demonstrates proof of business utility, both quantitatively and qualitatively - a utility that enables performance and adds value at the organizational, individual, group, and work process levels (Swanson, 1994).
- Leadership enables community; things of individual and the collective simultaneously.
- The possible outcomes and applications of leadership are acknowledged to be of both a "good" and "bad," or exploitative, nature (Swanson, Horton, & Kelly, 1986).
- Leadership is not seen to be synonymous with management, but rather is aimed more at "changing a system" with management aimed at "maintaining a system," each requiring different capabilities (Kotter, 1990, 1997; Swanson, 1994).

Building a Model of Responsible Leadership for Performance (RLP)

A. THE 3 E's OF RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP

J. B. White Newman, 1989



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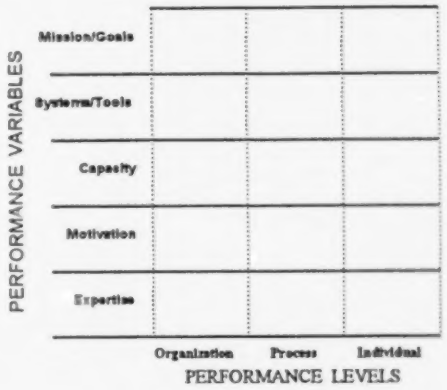
B. PERFORMANCE DIAGNOSTIC MATRIX

R. A. Swanson, 1994



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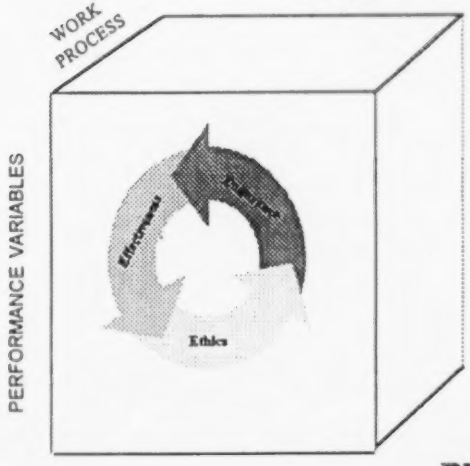
C. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR RLP

S. A. Lynham, 1997



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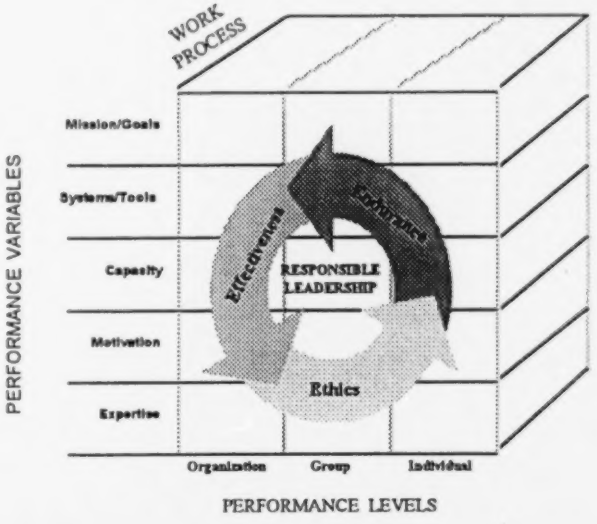
D. RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP FOR PERFORMANCE

S. A. Lynham, 1997



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- Leadership in organizations is acknowledged as a privilege extended by many constituents at various levels within the organization, and, as such, requires the need to continuously be re-earned.
- Self-knowledge is accepted as a core tenet of Responsible Leadership, questioning whether one can "know others" without "knowing oneself," a recognition that leadership begins from within.
- Responsible Leadership reflects effectiveness, ethics and endurance and clearly demonstrating these, both qualitatively and quantitatively, towards performance and people.
- Responsible Leadership is recognized to be as much enabled by responsible followership as visa versa. Followership needs to reflect effectiveness, ethics and endurance. To be a responsible leader also requires knowing how to be a responsible follower.
- Leadership is acknowledged to require both learning and unlearning, and involves the active pursuit of lifelong learning.
- Leadership may also be about love - mostly of and for people (DePree, 1990; Lynham, 1992).
- Leadership is not seen to be something "handed down from above," rather that it needs to be earned continuously and usually from multiple places/sources (e.g., constituents).
- Leadership is acknowledged to be more about enablement than empowerment because empowerment comes from within and cannot be 'bestowed' by one upon another.
- It is accepted that leadership sometimes requires "walking out on the plank, alone;" taking steps to places where others are hesitant to venture on their own. Thus, courage and loneliness are common realities of Responsible Leadership.

Core Elements from the Literature. Leadership of the past and today commonly focuses on effectiveness, on getting things done, on producing economic results, a focus that is strongly fueled by the uni-dimensional, short-term economic viewpoint of leadership driven by Wall street (Swanson, 1994). However, leadership, particularly Responsible Leadership, is more than just economic results. (see section A of Figure 1).

The Webster II Riverside University Dictionary (1994) describes the word "responsible" to mean the following:

> 1. Being legally or ethically accountable for the welfare or care of another. 2. Involving personal accountability or ability to act free from guidance or higher authority. 3. Being a source or cause. 4. Capable of making moral or rational decisions on one's own, thereby being answerable for one's behavior. 5. Capable of being trusted or depended on: reliable. 6. Based on or marked by good judgment. 7. Having the means to pay debts or meet obligations. 8. Required to render account: answerable.

From the above definitions of "responsible," it clear that the word involves more than just meeting uni-dimensionally goals. It involves things of ethics and reliability, of being answerable for one's actions and deeds. Responsible Leadership, too, must attend to more than just effectiveness-- it needs to go beyond just meeting short-term economic goals.

White Newman (1989) offers a very workable and appealing framework for Responsible Leadership, a framework that consists of 3Es, namely, effectiveness, ethics and endurance. Too often, says Newman, leadership writings and practice have emphasized how to be effective. They need to embrace much more than this singular focus:

> Being solely concerned with effect seems inadequate, potentially even dangerous, since it is obvious that a person can be effective -- that is, make a difference -- yet also be unethical. Knowing the harm such people can cause, I believe most of us want leaders who, because they are ethical, will make beneficial differences to the world.

Conversely, many good people just cannot get things done; they do not make a difference. They are ethical, but ineffectual. The premise is that most of us want to follow a good person who can convert ethical ideas into viable actions.

Too often, in these stressful times, individuals who are effective and ethical survive as leaders for only a brief time. They do not endure. Some are replaced by external factors. Others cave in or burn out under the pressure of leadership. It seems irrational to advocate using up leadership, or self-immolation, as a way to serve a cause. Thus, endurance becomes essential to leadership. Endurance encompasses refreshment for leaders and renewal for their groups. The further assumption is that most of us wish to follow, and/or be, enduring leaders.

Being effective, ethical and enduring as a leader is the 3Es model. They can be thought of as three poles for constructing a teepee and providing a common framework. An individual then builds a unique structure around each.

How can this be done? Each individual can wrap this framework around their ideal image of good leadership by responding to three questions.

1. What practices help me to be an effective leader?
2. What habits prepare me to be an ethical leader?
3. What resources allow me to be an enduring leader?"

(Julie Belle White Newman, 1993)

In a study conducted by Lynham (1992) the above framework was used to identify leadership practices relating to the 3Es perceived by leadership and followership to be most necessary to help sustain business organizations in South Africa through the 1992-1997 period of change. Table 1 provides an example of how this framework can be used by leadership and followership to indulge their ideal image of Responsible Leadership, and what the practices of each E may need to look like to achieve this purpose.

Table 1: Practices of Effectiveness, Ethics and Endurance perceived by leadership and followership to be necessary for Leadership to be considered Responsible and most likely to sustain South African business through the changes of the 1993-1998 business period (Lynham, 1992):

EFFECTIVENESS	ETHICS	ENDURANCE
1. Serving the reciprocity and partnership between leadership and followership.	1. Serving as a symbol.	1. Reflecting wellness, wholeness and balance.
2. Demonstrating through example.	2. Resonating the needs and feelings of one's constituents.	2. Embodying both a willingness and an ability to change.
3. Focusing beyond just the immediate environment.	3. Doing things right.	3. Embracing vision, goals, and values that evoke lastingness.
4. Sharing, inspiring and safe-guarding mission, vision and direction.	4. Nurturing differences and nurturing the larger environment.	4. Nurturing balance and reciprocity between leadership and followership.
5. Inspiriting change.	5. Embracing a sense of inner truth and higher purpose.	5. Showing toughness and courage..
6. Making decisions, appropriately.	6. Possessing toughness, courage, balance, and touch.	6. Pursuing learning.
7. Nurturing a climate of motivation and learning.	7. Holding a deep sense of commitment to and belief in people.	7. Evoking effectiveness and ethics.
8. Engaging movement and goal achievement.		

Performance - a necessary focus of leadership. According to Swanson (1994), "as the role of performance improvement in organizations increasingly takes on strategic proportions ... executives are increasingly being held more accountable in this arena" (p. 3). In the context of an increasingly volatile and complex environment, Swanson advocates that single-dimension views of organizations and organizational performance be replaced by a systems view. This view, he believes, is more inclusive and helps achieve strategic benefits by "applying systems solutions to systems problems and opportunities" (p. 13). In other words, approaching performance from a systems view will ensure more integrated, connected and sustainable solutions/interventions; solutions that will pursue transformation at multi-levels of performance, making it more likely that they will be adopted and "stick". (see section B of Figure 1).

Swanson's "Performance Diagnostic Matrix" advocates the application of a series of questions geared to keep the inquirer open to performance possibilities and outcomes and to not come to a conclusion on this issue too quickly. This Matrix enables one to review the performance issue from two key but interrelated perspectives, namely, "level of performance and type of performance issue" (p.46). It thus provides a powerful tool for identifying and diagnosing performance, as well as enabling its user to quickly spot disconnects and mis-alignments among and between the levels and variables of performance. By "putting on" the Performance Diagnosis Matrix, we have been provided a powerful three-dimensional systems lens for not only diagnosing, but also for understanding, performance.

Development of the Model of Responsible Leadership for Performance

Initial Model. For leadership to be responsible it must add value to the whole organizational system. It must attend to the multiplicity of performance variables and pursue the increase and integration of performance at all the core levels, as indicated by Swanson in the Performance Diagnostic Matrix (1994).

Leadership and leadership development efforts are often aimed at only one of the levels of performance resulting at best in a uni-dimensional, disconnected transformation. It is the task of Responsible Leadership to not only optimize the interaction of each of the performance variables at each level of performance, but to also coordinate the whole matrix and inter-relationships among the performance variables and performance levels. In other words, Responsible Leadership will pursue optimization and transformation of performance at all three levels of performance through a simultaneous coordination of the cells within the Matrix and of the Matrix as an integrated whole.

Leadership is needed that can deal with the complexity of performance issues in a systemic and systematic way. Responsible Leadership for Performance becomes the articulation of the models of responsibility and performance (see section C of Figure 1).

A Model of Responsible Leadership for Performance. Four performance questions for Responsible Leadership are taken from the performance question refrain posed by Swanson (1994):

1. Will the organization perform better?
2. Will the work processes perform better?
3. Will each group perform better?
4. Will individuals perform better?

To become performance-driven requires business-level thinking (p.2). The Matrix is a practical tool for understanding and diagnosing performance. It guides the analyst to core disconnects from performance. Understanding the interaction of the three levels is a must, and being able to explain and understand the five variables of performance and that they interact, too, is a prerequisite.

For the purpose of highlighting the role of an enduring leader-analyst, it is believed that a deep understanding of work processes is required within and between the various cells. Thus, the work process dimension is pulled out and illustrated as the depth of each cell, and the old space in the performance matrix is replaced with group level performance. The work process dimension is focused on the definition, documentation, effectiveness, and efficiency of core and major business processes.

Through this multi-dimensional view of organizations, strategic benefits are achieved by applying systems solutions to systems problems and opportunities. System theory informs us that partial solutions do not work. Solutions must work at all three/four levels of performance. Systems-oriented analysts know that focusing activities and programs on the wrong targets is a waste of organizational resources.

Leadership that models and enables this systems-orientation along with the framework of the 3Es of Responsible Leadership is what is required of durable leadership. Not only must Responsible Leadership focus on the multiple levels of performance, but it must do so in an effective, ethical and enduring way to achieve sustainable performance it needs to balance all three E's at all four levels of performance.

Performance occurs in multiple arenas: Organizational, group, and individual, and for each of these there are distinguishable work processes. For example, setting goals and mission at the organizational level of performance involves a specific process, which is different from doing the same at the group or individual levels. (see section D of Figure 1).

Question #2 Results: The Validity of the Model of Responsible Leadership for Performance

Question 2 focused on determining the content and face validity of the model of "Responsible Leadership for Performance," and was addressed through the expert critique of the model by responsible leaders and responsible followers.

Face Validity. After reviewing the model and providing their review feedback to the authors, a final question concerning the model's face validity was posed to the experts. Each of the four expert reviewers confirmed the face validity of the model. To them the RLP Model made sense.

Their general acceptance that the model made sense is different, however, than having questions about the total completeness, accuracy, or how to implement the model. Several of their insights concerning the model's *content* validity follow.

A Content Validity Review of the RLP Model. Of the four reviewers approached, one was a CEO, one a high level regional manager and the other a senior consultant. Three were from the same company which has been a member of the Forbes Best Small 200 Companies in the USA for the past four years. The first is from a small management consulting firm with a specialization of working with management leadership teams. Their feedback, in terms of perceived strengths and weaknesses, are presented, in brief, below:

Perceived Strengths of the RLP model

- the integrated, multi-dimensional performance focus of the model makes more sense than most other models having worked with, the latter which seem to focus on singular levels of performance (the individual level of performance).
- the emphasis on the need for different skill and capabilities when involved with "maintaining a system" as opposed to "changing a system". This is a workable way of making sense of the difference between management and leadership, and the responsibility to first truly understand the way a system works now before changing it.
- that the model supports the foundations of HRD and demonstrates a soundness in economics, systems and psychology, and appears to be based on grounded theory.
- that a sound and tested Performance Diagnostic Matrix (Swanson, 1994) is advocated to first understand the nature of performance issues, both current and future, and that this matrix pushes for an integration of aligned solutions.
- leading on from the above, that this Matrix lays the ground work to be able to track critical incidents and outcomes of the potential performance impact that leadership development can have, and do so at multiple levels of performance.
- that leadership is presented as more than just effectiveness; that for it to be considered "responsible" it must also be seen to be ethical and enduring and that to be judged as such it needs to be reviewed from multiple constituents.
- that the model enables one to think of the practice of Responsible Leadership as embracing both the "hard" and the "soft," and that this is a business necessity of leadership.
- that the model proposed is not a prescriptive, normative model. but rather allows for each organization to identify those capabilities which, given their context and challenges, will most likely make for Responsible Leadership ("it allows us to identify the practices and capabilities we need to have and develop for our leadership to be considered effective, ethical and enduring from multiple stakeholder perspectives").

Perceived Weaknesses of the RLP model

- that because the model includes unconventional, non-western perspectives (for example the assumption that leadership is lent to one and is thus in a reciprocal relationship with followership), it may be perceived to have limited utility and appeal in the USA business environment.
- that the model includes both "hard" and "soft" elements, the latter which may be negatively, or at best skeptically, received by USA business leaders.
- that the means by which to tie the performance contributions to leadership development are not yet available and may be a long time in the coming, if indeed at all possible (with any business credibility).
- that the RLP model and how it differs from other leadership models is at first difficult to understand and not immediately apparent. To really understand the significant difference of this model a more explicit, gradually building explanation is needed to make sense of its power, wisdom and leverage for performance.
- that the energy and wisdom of the model resides more within than outside of the author which makes it difficult to access on one's own. ("I need you there to explain it to me, then I understand and am excited by it!")

Summary and Conclusions

The model for "Responsible Leadership for Performance" has been developed and articulated as a unique theoretical and systematic view of leadership. It offers what is seen at this point to be a "true" model of sustainable leadership. Yet, it is recognized that the model may still be too complex and will likely be simplified through further development. To this point:

- The model for "Responsible Leadership for Performance" has demonstrated high content and face validity among the reviewers (responsible leaders and responsible followers).

Next steps include the following:

- The model for "Responsible Leadership for Performance," will be examined against the Toro Company case, providing high potential for vivid illustrations of (1) the leadership components (Bell, 1993), (2) the performance components (Swanson, 1994) of the model, and (3) the leadership-followership dimension within the model.
- Following the Toro Company case study, an agenda for research will be proposed for inquiry into "Responsible Leadership for Performance."

The model for "Responsible Leadership for Performance" represents a unique perspective on sustainable leadership. The core contribution of this effort is the integration of the "personal characteristics" view of leaders at the top, the "performance-systems view" of the complexity of the organization, and the recognition that leadership requires willing followership at various levels. This initial developmental effort is the first in a planned series.

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